CLAUSE STRUCTURE AND LANGUAGE CHANGE pdf

1: Clause - Wikipedia

This is a collection of previously unpublished papers on a specific topic in historical linguistics - clause structure, an issue of central importance since the pioneering work in the late s by Chomsky and Pollock. The collection testifies to the recent renewal of interest in questions of.

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2: Clause Structure and Language Change : Adrian Battye :

The Principles-and-Parameters approach to linguistic theory has triggered an enormous amount of work in comparative syntax over the last decade or so. A natural consequence of the growth in synchronic comparative work has been a renewed interest in questions of diachronic syntax, and this collection testifies to that trend.

A subordinate clause i. A second major distinction concerns the difference between finite and non-finite clauses. A finite clause contains a structurally central finite verb , whereas the structurally central word of a non-finite clause is often a non-finite verb. Traditional grammar focuses on finite clauses, the awareness of non-finite clauses having arisen much later in connection with the modern study of syntax. The discussion here also focuses on finite clauses, although some aspects of non-finite clauses are considered further below. Clauses can be classified according to a distinctive trait that is a prominent characteristic of their syntactic form. The position of the finite verb is one major trait used for classification, and the appearance of a specific type of focusing word e. These two criteria overlap to an extent, which means that often no single aspect of syntactic form is always decisive in determining how the clause functions. There are, however, strong tendencies. They are usually declarative as opposed to exclamative, imperative, or interrogative ; they express information in a neutral manner, e. The pig has not yet been fed. They can be viewed as basic, other clause types being derived from them. The pig has not yet been fed? The pig has not yet been fed! Verb first clauses[edit] Verb first clauses in English usually play one of three roles: He must stop laughing. Should he stop laughing? Had he stopped laughing, They have done the job. Have they done the job? Had they done the job, Verb first conditional clauses, however, must be classified as embedded clauses because they cannot stand alone. Wh-clauses[edit] Wh-clauses contain a wh-word. Wh-words often serve to help express a constituent question. They are also prevalent, though, as relative pronouns, in which case they serve to introduce a relative clause and are not part of a question. The wh-word focuses a particular constituent and most of the time, it appears in clause-initial position. The following examples illustrate standard interrogative wh-clauses. The b-sentences are direct questions main clauses , and the c-sentences contain the corresponding indirect questions embedded clauses: Sam likes the meat. Who likes the meat? They asked who likes the meat. Larry sent Susan to the store. Whom did Larry send to the store? We know whom Larry sent to the store. Where did Larry send Susan? Someone is wondering where Larry sent Susan. When it is the subject or something embedded in the subject that is focused, however, subject-auxiliary inversion does not occur. Whom did you call? Subject-auxiliary inversion is obligatory in matrix clauses when something other than the subject is focused, but it never occurs in embedded clauses regardless of the constituent that is focused. A systematic distinction in word order emerges across matrix wh-clauses, which can have VS order, and embedded wh-clauses, which always maintain SV order, e. Why are they doing that? They told us why they are doing that. Whom is he trying to avoid? We know whom he is trying to avoid. See also English relative clauses. Relative clauses are a mixed group. In English they can be standard SV-clauses if they are introduced by that or lack a relative pronoun entirely, or they can be wh-clauses if they are introduced by a wh-word that serves as a relative pronoun. Clauses according to semantic predicate-argument function[edit] Embedded clauses can be categorized according to their syntactic function in terms of predicate-argument structures. They can function as arguments , as adjuncts , or as predicative expressions. That is, embedded clauses can be an argument of a predicate, an adjunct on a predicate, or part of the predicate itself. The predicate in question is usually the matrix predicate of a main clause, but embedding of predicates is also frequent. Argument clauses[edit] A clause that functions as the argument of a given predicate is known as an argument clause. Argument clauses can appear as subjects, as objects, and as obliques. They can also modify a noun predicate, in which case they are known as content clauses. That they actually helped was really appreciated. Such argument clauses are content clauses: Relative clauses introduced by the relative pronoun that as in the b-clauses here have an outward appearance that is closely similar to that of content clauses. The relative clauses are adjuncts, however, not arguments. Adjunct clauses[edit] Adjunct clauses are embedded clauses that modify an entire predicate-argument structure. All clause types SV-, verb first, wh- can function as adjuncts, although the

stereotypical adjunct clause is SV and introduced by a subordinator i. Fred arrived before you did. After Fred arrived, the party started. Susan skipped the meal because she is fasting. Thus before you did in the first example modifies the matrix clause Fred arrived. Adjunct clauses can also modify a nominal predicate. The typical instance of this type of adjunct is a relative clause, e. We like the music that you brought. The people who brought music were singing loudly. They are waiting for some food that will not come. That is, it can form part of the predicate of a greater clause. That was when they laughed. He became what he always wanted to be. They form the matrix predicate together with the copula. Representing clauses[edit] Some of the distinctions presented above are represented in syntax trees. These trees make the difference between main and subordinate clauses very clear, and they also illustrate well the difference between argument and adjunct clauses. The following dependency grammar trees show that embedded clauses are dependent on an element in the main clause, often on a verb: These two embedded clauses are arguments. The embedded wh-clause what we want is the object argument of the predicate know. The embedded clause that he is gaining is the subject argument of the predicate is motivating. Both of these argument clauses are directly dependent on the main verb of the matrix clause. The following trees identify adjunct clauses using an arrow dependency edge: These two embedded clauses are adjunct clauses because they provide circumstantial information that modifies a superordinate expression. The first is a dependent of the main verb of the matrix clause and the second is a dependent of the object noun. The arrow dependency edges identify them as adjuncts. The arrow points away from the adjunct towards it governor to indicate that semantic selection is running counter to the direction of the syntactic dependency; the adjunct is selecting its governor. The next four trees illustrate the distinction mentioned above between matrix wh-clauses and embedded wh-clauses The embedded wh-clause is an object argument each time. The position of the wh-word across the matrix clauses a-trees and the embedded clauses b-trees captures the difference in word order. Matrix wh-clauses have V2 word order , whereas embedded wh-clauses have what amounts to V3 word order. In the matrix clauses, the wh-word is a dependent of the finite verb, whereas it is the head over the finite verb in the embedded wh-clauses. This confusion is due in part to how these concepts are employed in the phrase structure grammars of the Chomskyan tradition. In the s, Chomskyan grammars began labeling many clauses as CPs i. The choice of labels was influenced by the theory-internal desire to use the labels consistently. The X-bar schema acknowledged at least three projection levels for every lexical head: N, V, P, etc. Extending this convention to the clausal categories occurred in the interest of the consistent use of labels. This use of labels should not, however, be confused with the actual status of the syntactic units to which the labels are attached. A more traditional understanding of clauses and phrases maintains that phrases are not clauses, and clauses are not phrases. There is a progression in the size and status of syntactic units: The characteristic trait of clauses, i.

3: German sentence structure - Wikipedia

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Structure can refer to the order of words and ideas within: Where does this extract fit into the longer text â€" is it an opening or ending? Why are the paragraphs ordered in the way they are? How does the focus of each paragraph change? Is it important for the reader to know certain bits of information before they get to the next part of the text? Are there any links between the beginning and the end of the text? Are there any repeated images? Is there a significant change in an attitude, character or setting? Is there a change of perspective? Some structural devices within prose fiction Repetition â€" of words, phrases or whole sentences. Connectives â€" eg meanwhile, finally, although. Sentence types â€" eg multi-clause or single clause. For example, a multi-clause sentence could be used to build up layers of description to create a vivid setting. Sentence length â€" eg short to show tension. Paragraph length â€" eg single line paragraphs to focus the reader. Change of tense â€" eg from present to past. Narrative structure Fictional narratives may also follow an overall structure, which may fit broadly into typical stages. Exposition â€" the setting of the scene for the reader, this could be a description of setting or the backstory of a character. Crisis point or climax â€" an exciting or tense part of the text. Resolution â€" the conclusion of the narrative, where conflicts are resolved or meaning is revealed. In a short extract, only one or two of these of these stages might be evident. For example, if the extract is from the opening of a short story there may only be an exposition stage. These stages are not always in this order; a writer may choose to begin with a climax or crisis point. In this section the narrator is convinced he can hear the beating heart of his murdered victim under the floor boards. How has the writer structured this text to increase the sense of tension? No doubt I now grew very pale; but I talked more fluently, and with a heightened voice. Yet the sound increased -- and what could I do? It was a low, dull, quick sound -- much such a sound as a watch makes when enveloped in cotton. I gasped for breath -- and yet the officers heard it not. I talked more quickly -- more vehemently; but the noise steadily increased. I arose and argued about trifles, in a high key and with violent gesticulations; but the noise steadily increased. Why would they not be gone? I paced the floor to and fro with heavy strides, as if excited to fury by the observations of the men -- but the noise steadily increased. I foamed -- I raved -- I swore! I swung the chair upon which I had been sitting, and grated it upon the boards, but the noise arose over all and continually increased. It grew louder -- louder -- louder! And still the men chatted pleasantly, and smiled. Was it possible they heard not? But anything was better than this agony! Anything was more tolerable than this derision! I could bear those hypocritical smiles no longer! I felt that I must scream or die! I admit the deed! The multi-clause sentences further enhance the impression of this frantic mind.

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See Asking for a possessor. Asking for a predicative[edit] You ask for a predicative with the either interrogative pronoun Was or, if knowing it is not a nominal phrase, Wie. Asking for an adverbial[edit] It is possible to ask for the adverbial of a predicative, if it is not a nominal phrase and even for the adverbial of the adverbial etc. Der Baum ist 3 Meter hoch. Then one gives it the genitive case of the interrogative pronoun wessen for all cases, genders and numbers. Of course, this nominal phrase may not have a genitive possessor. Ich habe das Auto des Chefs gesehen. Der Vogel fliegt ungeheuer schnell - Wie schnell fliegt der Vogel? Theoretically, like the other specific questions, the unknown position is inverted to the beginning of the sentence. Whereas the pre- or post- position remains, the nominal part is replaced either by an interrogative pronoun or by a nominal phrase having the interrogative article. Er sah den Vogel auf dem Baum. So a short form is used instead in nearly every case. These short forms are also the only way to ask for an adverbial clause or for a proposition. Commands[edit] For a command, take the imperative form of the conjugated verb from the infinitive and put it at the beginning of the sentence followed by the corresponding personal pronoun. There also must be an exclamation point at the end of the sentence to make it a command. The separable prefix, if there is one, remains at its old place, separated. In the literary language it is possible to leave the verb at the second place. If the verb changes the vowel in the second and third person singular, the vowel is also changed in the second person singular of the imperative. The 2nd person plural pronoun is always omitted. In archaic language, or to emphasize who is ordered for the action, the 2nd person singular pronoun may be left. Das Tier verfolgen - Verfolge du das Tier! This is a result of the spoken language and has no difference in meaning. Schreib das Wort auf! There are no imperative forms for first person plural and second person formal. You must put it to beginning of the sentence, separate the separable prefix before that, and place the personal pronouns wir or Sie directly after it. Actual commands are often given as a simple unconjugated infinitive. Put some warm clothes on and do not forget your key; a mother to her child Hey, nicht faulenzen, arbeiten! Hey yo, do not laze around, get some work done! Subordinate clauses[edit] A subordinate clause Nebensatz is always incorporated in a main clause or another subordinate clause. Any part of the main clause can be replaced by it, but some conjugated verb must remain. However, subclauses are generally moved to the end of the sentence if it can be done without inconvenience and they do not take the first place because of importance. As for word order, it differs in two things only from a main clause: The verb is, without separation , sent to the place where the first part of a separable verb would be in a main clause, i. Wohin ist er gelaufen? Niemand wusste, wohin er gelaufen ist. No one knew where he ran to. Final clauses can be replaced by an "um-zu"-infinitive, if the subject is identical; in practice, um behaves as conjunction, and the infinitive, with a zu, as conjugated verb, and the subject falls away. Wir haben genug Geld, um diese CD zu kaufen. In conditional phrases, the conjunction wenn may be left out in the main clause and the verb put into its place. In this case, so replaces dann in the subordinate clause. Indirect speech may behave as subclause in relation to the main clause, but the conjunction which would be "dass" may be left out and then its word-order is as in main clauses. Er sagte, er sei mit der Arbeit fertig. Denn, by custom translated into English as for, is in practice just an equivalent to weil "because", but it requires a main-clause word-order and may even take a semicolon instead of a comma. Er kommt nicht zur Arbeit, denn er ist krank. In subordinate clauses that make use of two or more infinitives consecutively a phenomenon known as Doppelinfinitiv "double infinitive" with two infinitives , the conjugated verb generally haben, werden, or a modal verb , comes before the two or more infinitives. Perfect constructions of this type can usually be avoided altogether by using the simple past: For instance, just as one could say either: I will go with you, if I can. Ich komme mit, wenn ich kann. Note, however, that in German when the independent clause comes after a subordinate clause the conjugated verb comes before the subject. Clauses with dass[edit] Subordinate clauses beginning with dass [thus, so, that] enable the speaker to use statements like nominal phrases or pronouns. These sentences are singular, neuter

and either nominative or accusative. Dass Spinnen keine Insekten sind, ist allgemein bekannt. Using the interrogative pronoun without good cause is considered typical for legalese language. The genitive case of a relative pronoun matching the outer nominal phrase in gender and number is used. Der, der der Frau, der ich schon Honig gegeben hatte, Honig gab, muss mehr Honig kaufen "The man who gave honey to the woman I had already given honey to, has to buy more honey" Such constructions are generally avoided by using forms of welch- as relative pronouns. Der, welcher der Frau, welcher Otherwise, welcher is rarely used never in the genitive , and without a difference in meaning. If the relative pronoun refers to a thing as yet unknown or a whole sentence and not a part of it, was is used instead, always equivalent here to an English "which". Der Chef stellte einen Arbeiter ein, was diesen sehr gefreut hat. Southern Germans have constructed a double form "der wo, die wo, das wo" which, however, is almost necessary in Bavarian dialect. Adverbial clauses[edit] An adverbial clause begins with a conjunction, defining its relation to the verb or nominal phrase described.

The lion roared and growled at the foxes. A direct object is a noun, pronoun or group of words acting as a noun that receives the action of a transitive verb without a linking preposition. A direct object answers the question whom? The teacher read the story. The teacher read the story to the students. In sentences where the indirect object follows the word to or for, always put the direct object before the indirect object. If the indirect object does not follow to or for, put the indirect object before the direct object. The teacher gave an assignment to the students. The teacher gave to the students an assignment. The teacher gave the students an assignment. When a pronoun is used as an indirect object, some verbs require to or for before the pronoun, while others do not. Consult a dictionary if you are unsure the best place to look this up is in the example sentences within the entry of the verb in the dictionary. The teacher explained the grammar rule to the students. The teacher explained them the grammar rule. The teacher explained the grammar rule to them. The teacher gave an assignment to them. The teacher gave them an assignment. When both the direct object and the indirect object are pronouns, put the direct object before the indirect object and use to or for with the indirect object. The teacher gave them it. The teacher gave it to them. A typical word order for an English one-clause-sentence would therefore be: To expand the basic one-clause-sentence, you can add manner how? These usually appear in the above mentioned order. An easy formula to help you remember the basic word order for a basic English sentence is: You usually do not have to include all six parts, but if you do, this order is recommended. The teacher gave an assignment to the students quickly in class yesterday. A complement is an element appearing in the predicate that renames or describes a subject or an object. A subject complement is a noun, pronoun, or adjective that follows a linking verb e. An object complement follows a direct object and either renames or describes it. This student is a 12th-grader. A modifier is a word or group of words that describes or limits other words. Modifiers can appear in both the subject and the predicate of the sentence. Modifiers may be single words, phrases or whole clauses. The best student got an A on the biology test. He did not finish it because the lesson ended. An appositive is a word or group of words that renames the noun or pronoun preceding it. When an appositive is not essential to identifying what it renames when it is non-restrictive , use a comma to separate it from the rest of the sentence. Berlin, the capital of Germany, is developing rapidly.

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